# Spontaneous Mitotic Recombination in Yeast: The Hyper-Recombinational rem1 Mutations Are Alleles of the RAD3 Gene

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#### **ABSTRACT**

The RAD3 gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae is required for UV excision-repair and is essential for cell viability. We have identified the rem1 mutations (enhanced spontaneous mitotic recombination and mutation) of Saccharomyces cerevisiae as alleles of RAD3 by genetic mapping, complementation with the cloned wild-type gene, and DNA hybridization. The high levels of spontaneous mitotic gene conversion, crossing over, and mutation conferred upon cells by the rem1 mutations are distinct from the effects of all other alleles of RAD3. We present preliminary data on the localization of the rem1 mutations within the RAD3 gene. The interaction of the rem1 mutant alleles with a number of radiation-sensitive mutations is also different than the interactions reported for previously described (UV-sensitive) alleles of RAD3. Double mutants of rem1 and a defect in the recombination-repair pathway are inviable, while double mutants containing UV-sensitive alleles of RAD3 are viable. The data presented here demonstrate that: (1) rem1 strains containing additional mutations in other excision-repair genes do not exhibit elevated gene conversion; (2) triple mutants containing rem1 and mutations in both excision-repair and recombination-repair are viable; (3) such triple mutants containing rad52 have reduced levels of gene conversion but wild-type frequencies of crossing over. We have interpreted these observations in a model to explain the effects of rem1. Consistent with the predictions of the model, we find that the size of DNA from rem1 strains, as measured by neutral sucrose gradients, is smaller than wild type.

N baker's yeast, Saccharomyces cerevisiae, a number 1 of genes (RAD genes) involved in DNA repair have been identified by mutations that confer ultraviolet (UV) or X-ray sensitivity (for reviews see HAYNES and KUNZ 1981; GAME 1983). Three major dark repair pathways, or epistasis groups, have been identified. The pathways (named for a major participating gene) are: (1) excision-repair of UV-induced thymine dimers and other bulky lesions (RAD3), (2) double-strand break (dsb) or recombination-repair (RAD52), and (3) error-prone or mutational repair (RAD6). The RAD3 gene has been of particular interest since it was discovered that disruption or deletion of the coding region is lethal in haploid cells (HIGGINS et al. 1983; NAUMOVSKI and FRIEDBERG 1983). In this paper we report a hitherto unknown class of mutations in RAD3 that do not cause extreme UV sensitivity but rather change the properties of DNA metabolism as evidenced by increased levels of mitotic recombination and spontaneous mutation (hence their original designation, rem1 mutations). (Note: "Mitotic recombination" as discussed in this paper refers to recombination between homologs.)

The rem1 mutations confer a semidominant, mitosis-specific, hyper-rec/hyper-mutable phenotype (Golin and Esposito 1977, 1981; Malone and Hoek-

STRA 1984). The first allele, rem1-1, was isolated as a mutator and subsequently shown to increase spontaneous mitotic recombination (Golin and Esposito 1977, 1981). We independently isolated a second allele, rem1-2, as a hyper-rec mutation (Malone and Hoekstra 1984), and have shown it to confer a mutator phenotype (Hoekstra and Malone 1987). Unlike certain rad mutations that can display some of the rem1 phenotypes, strains containing rem1 are essentially as resistant as wild-type cells to treatments such as UV and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) (Hoekstra and Malone 1987). That is, rem1 mutations do not appear to confer a significant defect in repair.

The effects of the rem1 alleles on recombination have been extensively studied (Golin and Esposito 1977, 1981; Malone, Golin and Esposito 1980; Malone and Hoekstra 1984). The distribution of recombination events along a chromosome in rem1 strains is intermediate to wild-type mitotic and meiotic distributions (Malone, Golin and Esposito 1980). We demonstrated by multiple mutant analysis that inappropriate expression of the meiotic recombination system seem unlikely to be responsible for the rem1 phenotype (Malone and Hoekstra 1984). We also found that the double mutants rem1 rad50 and

TABLE 1		
Phenotypes of mutations used in combination	with	rem1

			Recombi	ination		
Mutation	Radiation sensitivity	Repair group <sup>a</sup>	Spontaneous <sup>c</sup> mitotic	Meiotic <sup>d</sup>	Spontaneous <sup>b</sup> mutation	Comments
rem1	± UV°	NA <sup>f</sup> (ER)	+++	+	+++	Semidominant hyper-rec, mutator
rad1	UV	<i>RAD3</i> ER	+	+	±	Deficient in dimer removal
rad4	UV	RAD3 ER	+	+	±	Deficient in dimer removal
rad50	Χ/γ	RAD52 DSBR	+++	0	+ +	Sporulation defective; meiotic Rec
rad52	Χ/γ	RAD52 DSBR	0	0	+ +	Sporulation defective; general Rec

Information summarized from reviews by HAYNES and KUNZ (1981) and GAME (1983).

<sup>a</sup> ER is excision repair; DSBR is double-strand break repair.

c + = wild type; 0 = decreased levels; + + + = increased recombination.

d + = proficient; 0 = absent or reduced.

f Not applicable.

rem1 rad52 are inviable [RAD50, like RAD52, is required for recombination-repair (Game et al. 1980; Malone and Esposito 1980; Prakash et al. 1980; Haynes and Kunz 1981; Game 1983)]. This observation led to the proposal that lesions occur in rem1 strains that require recombination-repair for resolution. In this paper, we provide evidence that these lesions may be double strand breaks.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and culture conditions: The yeast strains used in this study are closely related isolates containing the various recombination and repair mutations described throughout the text and in Table 1. All strains have been backcrossed at least three times to the strains K210-4A, K210-6D, K264-5B, or K264-10D (MALONE and HOEKSTRA 1984). Haploids contain (some or all of) either of two sets of mutations which, when intercrossed, generate up to seven different heteroallelic and two heterozygous drugresistance markers for the measurement of recombination. Haploid genotypes, for either mating type, were: (1) ho lys2-1 tyr1-1 his7-2 canl<sup>R</sup> ura3-13 ade5 met13-d trp5-2 leu1-12 ade2-1; or (2) ho lys2-2 tyr1-2 his7-1 ura3-1 met13-c cyh2<sup>R</sup> trp5-c leu1-c ade2-1. Strains not of these configurations are noted in the text. The rad1-2- and rad3-2-containing strains originated from L. Prakash (University of Rochester). The rad4 mutation was obtained from the Yeast Genetic Stock Center (Berkeley, California).

Yeast media formulations and standard techniques for sporulation, dissection, testing of auxotrophic requirements, and segregation analysis have been described, as have procedures for determining recombination levels (MALONE and HOEKSTRA 1984).

The Escherichia coli strains used throughout the course

of this work were HB101, MC1066, or RK1400 (obtained from R. KOLODNER) (SYMINGTON, FOGARTY and KOLODNER 1983). Media for growth of *E. coli* are described in Maniatis, Fritsch and Sambrook (1982).

Isolation of RAD3: Spheroplasts of the ura3-52 rad3-2 strain LP2649-1A (Higgins et al. 1983) were transformed to uracil independence using a wild type yeast DNA pool in plasmid YEp24 (Carlson and Botstein 1982; kindly provided by S. C. Falco, E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Co.). The agar overlay containing the transformants was lifted off the regeneration plates and macerated in a small volume of 0.2 M Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> buffer (pH 7.5). The mixture was diluted and transformants plated for single colonies on uracil omission medium. Of transformed colonies arising, 22,500 were picked to grid patterns on uracil omission medium, grown overnight at 30°, replicated to uracil omission medium and the replicates exposed to a UV light source (2 × 15 Watt G.E. model G15T8 Germicidal Lamps, fluence exposure of 100 J/m<sup>2</sup>). The exposed plates were immediately wrapped in foil to avoid photoreactivation and grown for 2 days. After retesting resistant patches, five consistently demonstrated approximately wild-type levels of UV resistance. Included as controls on each plate were RAD3 and rad3-2 strains containing the vector, YEp24. All five UV-resistant clones demonstrated cosegregation of the plasmid with UV resistance.

The plasmids were rescued in *E. coli* from total yeast DNA preparations. Restriction analysis demonstrated that all five had the same insert. One of these, pMFH100, was chosen for subsequent analysis.

**DNA manipulation:** Restriction digestions followed the recommendation of manufacturers. Enzymes were purchased from Bethesda Research Laboratories (Gaithersberg, Maryland) and New England Biolabs (Beverly, Massachusetts). Procedures for transformation, DNA isolation, plasmid purification, and DNA blot hybridizations have

 $b \pm =$  slightly lower than wild type; ++ and +++ = varying levels of increased mutation.

e rem1 is slightly UV sensitive at high fluence levels.

been described (Maniatis, Fritsch and Sambrook 1982; Malone and Hyman 1983; Hoekstra and Malone 1985).

Rescue of rem1 alleles by transformation with gapped plasmids: Haploid strains bearing rem1-1 or rem1-2 were transformed with derivatives of pMFH102 lacking the HpaI internal fragments (this gap removes the entire RAD3 coding region), the ClaI internal fragment, the SmaI to ClaI fragment, or the ClaI to BalI fragment (see Figure 1). Transformants containing a plasmid the size of the starting full-length pMFH102 were picked and total yeast DNA prepared. This DNA was used to transform E. coli. Plasmid DNA was prepared from the transformants and shown to have the restriction map expected of a faithful gap-rescue of the RAD3 region. This plasmid DNA was transformed into a diploid yeast strain wild type for all repair genes which contained diagnostic markers to monitor gene conversion and crossing over (see MATERIALS AND METHODS).

Determination of mitotic recombination frequencies: All measurements of mitotic recombination were done with freshly mated diploids using the procedure described in MALONE and HOEKSTRA (1984).

Determination of the contribution of chromosome loss to drug-resistance frequencies: The frequency of drugresistant colonies arising from a population of sensitive diploid cells heterozygous for a recessive drug-resistance marker is used as a measure of the frequency of crossing over between the marker and its centromere. Since chromosome loss may also contribute to the resistant population, we employed strains specially marked to determine the extent of this contribution. Diploid strains were heterozygous for can1R (canavanine-resistance) on the left arm of chromosome V, linked in coupling to his1 on the right arm. Canavanine-resistant colonies that result from crossing over will remain histidine independent, while those resulting from loss of the homolog bearing the sensitivity allele will become auxotrophic for histidine. Similarly, to assess loss of chromosome VII, our strains were heterozygous for cyh $2^R$ and ade6 and homozygous for ade2-1. Among Cyh<sup>R</sup> colonies, mitotic recombinants are red whereas white colonies result from chromosome loss (see Roman 1956).

At least 200 single colonies of freshly mated diploids were picked onto YPD master plates in patches. These plates were replicated onto canavanine- or cycloheximide-containing media in a manner to produce well-separated papillae. A single papilla was picked from each patch and tested for expression of the recessive marker on the other side of the centromere as described above.

Sucrose gradient analysis: The wild-type and rem1 strains used were the products of five rounds of backcrosses and were therefore 97% isogenic. The procedure used for sucrose gradient analysis of yeast chromosomal DNA was that of Resnick et al. (1981, 1984) and Resnick, Boyce and Cox (1981). Briefly, cells were grown overnight in complete synthetic medium containing 12.5 µg/ml adenine and 10 μCi of [<sup>3</sup>H]adenine or [<sup>14</sup>C]adenine (Research Products International, Chicago, Illinois). Where indicated, the label was chased for one generation in synthetic medium containing 50 µg/ml adenine. Gentle cell lysis was accomplished by incubating cells in 0.1 M Tris-sulfate (pH 9.3), 0.01 M EDTA, 0.3 M 2-mercaptoethanol for 10 min at 37°, washing and resuspending cells in 50 mm  $K_2HPO_4$  (pH 6.5), 10 mm EDTA (at  $10^8$  cells/ml) and adding  $2\times10^7$  cells to 20  $\mu l$ of 12.5% Na-Sarkosyl, 20 µl of 2 mg/ml RNAse A, 20 µl of 2 mg/ml Zymolyase 60,000. The mixture was incubated at 37° for 10 min in a 1000 µl pipetor tip which had been shortened to enlarge the bore and sealed with parafilm. Ten microliters of 5 mg/ml Proteinase K were added to the mixture and held for 30 min. Just prior to loading, 50 µl of a solution containing 20 mg/ml Na-Sarkosyl, 30 mg/ml Na-deoxycholate, 50 mg/ml Na-lauryl sulfate were added to complete lysis. Pre-formed 5–20% linear gradients were gently loaded by placing the pipetor tip on an automatic pipet gun and slowly dialing the lysed cells on the gradient. Centrifugation was in an SW50.1 rotor at 9,000 rpm. for 16 hr.

Gradients were fractionated from the bottom and each fraction made to 0.3 M NaOH, incubated at 37° for 60 min, neutralized with HCl and an equal volume of ice cold 10% TCA added. The precipitate was collected on Whatman glass fiber filters, dried, and counted using a toluene-based scintillation cocktail. Measurements of radioactivity were performed using a Unilux II (Nuclear Chicago) or a LS-5801 (Beckman) liquid scintillation counter.

#### RESULTS

Genetic data indicating rem1 is an allele of RAD3: In the course of genetic crosses to construct rem1 rad4 double mutant strains, we noticed that the parental class of tetrads greatly exceeded nonparental or tetratype tetrads. Because RAD3 is linked to RAD4 at a distance of 16.4 cM (MORTIMER and SCHILD 1980), we examined the linkage of rem1 to both RAD3 and RAD4. The failure to observe any recombinants between rem1 and rad3 suggested that the rem1 mutations might be alleles of the RAD3 gene (Table 2).

Analysis of a cloned RAD3 gene: To determine if REM1 and RAD3 were the same gene, we cloned RAD3 to test for complementation of the rem1 phenotype. Spheroplasts of the genotype ura3-52 rad3-2 were transformed to uracil independence using a wild-type yeast DNA pool as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Transformants were tested for UV resistance and clones demonstrating wild-type UV resistance were chosen for further use. A plasmid, pMFH100, was isolated in E. coli that, upon retransformation of yeast, complemented the rad3-2 mutation for UV sensitivity. The plasmid did not complement other UV-sensitive mutations, such as rad1-2 (data not shown). The restriction map of the pMFH100 insert is given in Figure 1; it is identical to the map of RAD3 published by NAUMOVSKI and FRIEDBERG (1983) and HIGGINS et al. (1983). The plasmids pMFH100, pMFH102 (a subclone containing the KpnI-SalI fragment), and pNF3001 [a RAD3 plasmid provided by L. Naumovski and E. Friedberg (NAUMOVSKI et al. 1985)] were tested for their ability to complement the rad3 and rem1 mutant phenotypes. All three plasmids were able to eliminate rad3 UV sensitivity and reduce rem1 hyper-recombination (Figure 1 and Table 3). We conclude that rem1-1 and rem1-2 are alleles of the essential yeast excision-repair function RAD3. The effect of RAD3 gene dosage is also seen in Table 3: the centromere-containing plasmid pNF3001 (which would be present in two copies per diploid cell, on the average) consistently showed less of a reduction of rem1 hyper-recombination than

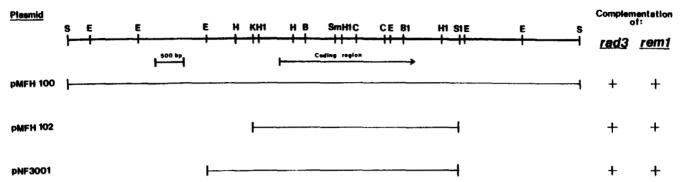


FIGURE 1.—Restriction maps and ability of various RAD3 plasmids to complement rad3-2 and rem1. pMFH100 represents a clone from a random Sau3A library of yeast DNA inserted into plasmid Yep24. This clone complemented the UV-sensitivity of a rad3-2 strain. E is EcoRI; H is HindIII; K is KpnI; SI is SalI; B1 is BalI; C is ClaI; HI is HpaI; Sm is SmaI; B is BamHI; S is Sau3AI. pMFH102 is a subclone containing the 3.9-kb KpnI-SalI fragment in pJ0158 (Heuterspreute et al. 1985). pNF3001 is a RAD3-containing plasmid provided by Naumovski et al. (1985). Strains containing one of the three plasmids were tested for their UV sensitivity (complementation of rad3-2) and mitotic recombination levels (complementation of rem1).

TABLE 2
The rem1 mutations are tightly linked to RAD3

	Segr	Segregation pattern <sup>a</sup>				
Genotype	P	T	NPD	MD <sup>6</sup> (cM)		
<u>rem1-2 + </u> + rad4	59	21	2	20.2		
$\frac{rem1-1 +}{+ rad4}$	58	14	3	21.3		
$\frac{rad3-2}{+}$ + $\frac{rad4}{-}$	89	28	4	21.4		
$\frac{rem1-2 + rad3-2}{+ rad3-2}$	26	0	0	<1.9		
$\frac{rem1-1}{+} + \frac{1}{rad3-2}$	49	0	0	<1.0		
$\frac{rem1-1 + }{+ rem1-2}$	81	0	0	< 0.6		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> P, NPD, and T refer to parental, nonparental and tetratype tetrads, respectively.

<sup>b</sup> Map distances were calculated using the formula MD =  $[(T + 6N)/(P + T + NPD)] \times 100/2$  (Perkins 1949).

<sup>d</sup> All tetrads segregated 4:0 for hyper-recombination.

did the multicopy plasmids pMFH100 and pMFH102.

Localization of the rem1 mutations within the RAD3 gene: The rem1 mutations confer phenotypes differing from other known rad3 mutations: relative UV resistance, hyper-recombination, and hyper-mutation (Golin and Esposito 1977; Malone and Hoekstra 1984; Hoekstra and Malone 1987). The rem1-2 allele is also dominant to rad3-2, both for UV sensitivity (Figure 2) and for mitotic recombination (Table 4). Furthermore, rad3-2 rad52 double mutants are viable (unlike rem1 rad52): a diploid heterozygous for both mutations generated 63 wild type, 53 rad3-

2, 50 rad52-1, and 59 rad3-2 rad52-1 spores. Since the phenotypes of the mutant alleles are so different, we felt it was important to determine where the rem mutations were located within the RAD3 gene. To this end, we performed gap-rescue experiments (ORR-WEAVER, SZOSTAK and ROTHSTEIN 1983) using various gapped derivatives of pMFH102 (our wildtype RAD3 clone) to rescue rem1-1 or rem1-2. Mitotic recombination frequencies were measured in transformed, marked diploids and are shown in Table 5 (see Figure 1 for restriction map). The rescue of rem1-2 by a plasmid gapped with HpaI (which removes the entire coding region of RAD3), shows a large increase in recombination frequencies at all loci, with an overall enhancement of recombination similar to that observed in rem1-2/rem1-2 homozygotes (MA-LONE and HOEKSTRA 1984). This result indicates that this rescue does indeed contain the DNA sequence alteration(s) responsible for the phenotype conferred by the rem1-2 allele. Further, two independent rescues of rem1-2 with a ClaI-gapped plasmid also cause highly significant increases in mitotic recombination frequencies. These results suggest that the rem1-2 allele may be located in or near the ClaI fragment. The uncertainty derives from published results indicating that gaps can be extended significant distances after transformation (e.g., ORR-WEAVER, SZOS-TAK and ROTHSTEIN 1983; NAUMOVSKI and FRIEDBERG 1987). We are in the process of determining the nucleotide sequence of the ClaI fragment and adjacent regions of the rescued plasmids to identify any changes from wild type.

For the rescues of rem1-1, the situation is more complex. The HpaI and Cla-Bal rescues show significantly elevated mitotic recombination frequencies. However, the increases are not as high as those observed with the rem1-2 rescues. The rescues of rem1-1 by the ClaI and the SmaI-ClaI gapped plasmids produced recombination frequencies not differing significantly from the strain transformed with the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> No recombinant spores (double mutant or wild type) have been recovered out of 360 viable spores examined from both crosses. This suggests a recombination frequency <0.003.

TABLE 3

Effects of cloned fragments containing RAD3 on mitotic recombination frequencies in rem1 diploids

	Vector plasmid							
Strain genotype	RAD3 plasmid	HIS7	TYR1	LEU1	TRP5	MET13	CAN1	СҮН2
rem1-2 rem1-2	YEp24 pMFH100	50		67	34		13	49
	<u>pJO158</u> pMFH102		40	37		10	15	105
	$\frac{\text{YCp50}}{\text{pNF3001}}$	20		15			3.6	9.4
$\frac{rem1-1}{rem1-1}$	$\frac{\text{YEp24}}{\text{pMFH100}}$			26	15		25	55
	$\frac{\text{YCp50}}{\text{pNF3001}}$			15	6.8		7.2	9.4

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Values represent the ratio of geometric mean recombination frequencies for the strain transformed by the vector relative to the strain transformed by a given RAD3-containing plasmid. A ratio of one would indicate that the cloned fragment does not reduce mitotic recombination from the rem1 level. The higher the ratio, the greater the reduction by the cloned fragment. pMFH100 is our original RAD3 isolate contained in YEp24, pMFH102 is the 3.9-kb Kpn1-Sall RAD3 fragment subcloned in pJO158, and pNF3001 (Naumovski et al. 1985) is a 4.5-kb EcoRI-Sall RAD3 fragment in YCp50. For YEp24 and YCp50-based plasmids, 12 cultures were grown. For the pJO158-based plasmids, 15 cultures were grown. All experiments were performed on uracil omission (YEp24 and YCp50) or tryptophan omission (pJO158) medium to ensure maintenance of the plasmid.

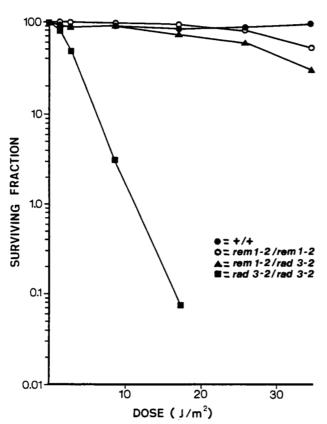


FIGURE 2.—The rem1-2 mutation is dominant to rad3-2 for UV sensitivity. UV survival curves were performed as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Diploid strains are the same as those described in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Comparison of mitotic recombination in diploid strains containing rem1-2 and rad3-2

	Relative recombination frequencies <sup>a</sup>								
District			Intrageni	С		Intergenic			
Diploid genotype	URA3	HIS7	TYR1	LEU1	LYS2	CYH2			
++	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0			
$\frac{rad3-2}{rad3-2}$	1.1	1.6	1.7	_	0.43	2.4			
$\frac{rem1-2}{rad3-2}$	6.3	11	25	17	12	9.0			
$\frac{rem1-2}{rem1-2}$	5.4	13	36	24	16	8.1			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Values are normalized to the wild-type recombination frequencies presented in Table 6. The *rem1-2* and *rad3-2* strains used to construct the diploids were sibling segregants from the mapping crosses described in Table 2.

wild-type RAD3 plasmid alone. These results suggest that neither the SmaI-ClaI nor the ClaI fragment contain rem1-1. The mutation may therefore lie within the ClaI-BalI fragment or 3' to the BalI site, since the ClaI-BalI rescue showed the rem1 phenotype. These results also indicate that overexpression of the wild-type RAD3 gene can elevate mitotic recombination (compare the parent strain with and without the RAD3 plasmid in Table 5).

TABLE 5
Relative mitotic recombination frequencies in wild-type strains bearing various rescued plasmids

				Relative recombination frequencies					
Allele rescued	Gap	TYR1	LYS2	TRP5	LEU1	MET13	CAN1	СҮН2	"X"ª
rem1-2	HpaI-HpaI <sup>b</sup>	325°	56.3*	29.6*	23.4*	30.2*	9.3*	10.8*	26.6
rem1-2	ClaI-ClaI	38.3*	33.8*	18.1*	15.4*	39.7*	8.6	8.4	23.2
rem1-2	ClaI-ClaI	14.0*	20.6	10.9*	19.4	13.7*	5.0*	8.2*	13.1
rem1-1	HpaI-HpaI <sup>b</sup>	6.4*	11.9*	10.2*	6.4*	6.6*	2.3	6.6*	7.2
rem1-1	ClaI-BalI	11.4*	21.8*	8.6*	6.9*	7.6*	3.5*	5.1	9.3
rem1-1	ClaI-ClaI	4.7	2.0	8.4*	5.3*	5.1*	3.5	3.7	4.7
rem1-1	SmaI-ClaI	5.5	1.7	1.9	2.8	5.1*		3.3	3.4
	$None^d$	4.0#	6.5#	2.0#	1.5	2.2	2.2#	1.8	2.9
	None (parent)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
	* '	(1.04)	(1.44)	(12.6)	(20.3)	(12.4)	(324)	(289)	

All plasmids were present in the RAD3 diploid whose recombination values are shown in the bottom row. Geometric means were calculated from five independent cultures for each strain. The numbers in parentheses under the parent strain are the actual mean frequencies  $\times$  10<sup>6</sup>. The other values have been normalized to the parent strain frequencies.

<sup>a</sup>"X" is an arbitrary measure of the effect of the plasmid on mitotic recombination. It represents the average increase over the parent for all loci measured.

<sup>b</sup> The *HpaI-HpaI* rescues span the complete coding region of *RAD3*. See Figure 1 for the restriction map of *RAD3*.

6 Mean value is very high because of "jackpot" events in two cultures. Not used to calculate "X" for this rescue.

<sup>d</sup> Intact RAD3 plasmid pMFH102CBU

\* Represents a mean recombination frequency differing significantly (P < 0.05) as determined by Student's t-test from the mean measured in the pMFH102CBU-bearing strain.

\*Represents a mean recombination frequency in the pMFH102CBU-bearing strain that is significantly different (P < 0.05) from the parent wild-type strain with no plasmid.

Increased gene conversion in rem1 cells requires excision-repair functions: The lethality of rem1 in combination with the dsb repair functions RAD50 and RAD52 suggests dsb's may occur in rem1 strains. However, since rem1 strains also display increased mutation rates (HOEKSTRA and MALONE 1987), the initial lesion seemed unlikely to be a dsb, since repair of dsb's is not mutagenic (HAYNES and KUNZ 1981). Instead, we proposed that the initial lesion occurring in rem1 strains was acted upon by an unknown function, and that action ultimately led to a dsb (HOEKSTRA and MALONE 1987).

Genes in the excision-repair system seemed to us to be good candidates for the unknown function. Not only can they detect and act on pyrimidine dimers and other bulky lesions such as psoralen adducts (JACHYMCZYK et al. 1981; MAGANA-SCHWENCKE et al. 1982; MILLER, PRAKASH and PRAKASH 1982) but they are capable of recognizing small adducts like N-6methyladenine (HOEKSTRA and MALONE 1986). We therefore constructed double mutants with rem1 and the excision-defective mutations rad1-2 and rad4. The double mutants, rem1 rad1-2 and rem1 rad4, were completely viable (data not shown). However, rad1 and rad4 unexpectedly reduced the level of gene conversion in rem1 strains to essentially the level seen in the excision-repair mutants alone (Table 6). This implies that the excision-repair functions are required for this part of the hyper-rec phenotype of rem1. The rem1 level of intergenic crossing over, as measured by drug resistance at CAN1 and CYH2, was not reduced by the excision-repair defects.

To demonstrate that the reduction in gene conversion was not due to reversion of rem1 in the strains used, a number of recombinant colonies from these experiments were sporulated and tetrads dissected. In all cases (10 of 10 asci generating four live spores) the segregants demonstrated both the rem1 and rad1 (or rad4) phenotypes (data not shown). A second experiment confirmed that the selected prototrophs were actually convertants and not crossover events. Ten Ura+ and ten Leu+ colonies from each mutant class presented in Table 6 were sporulated and dissected. In all cases, the progeny demonstrated that greater than 95% of the mitotic events for the ura3 or leu1 heteroalleles in each strain class must have been gene conversions since reciprocal double mutants were not observed (data not shown). Therefore, the hyper-gene conversion observed in strains containing rem1 requires at least the RAD1 and RAD4

Elevated drug-resistance frequencies observed in rem1 rad1 and rem1 rad4 diploids are not due to chromosome loss: It was surprising that the excision-repair mutations reduced rem1 gene conversion but not the frequency of drug resistance (presumed to be due to crossing over). Current molecular models of mitotic and meiotic recombination propose that gene conversion and crossing over are associated events (Meselson and Radding 1975; Esposito and Wagstaff 1981; Szostak et al. 1983). To verify that the drug-resistant colonies used as a measure of crossing over did not represent chromosome loss events, we constructed strains designed to simultane-

TABLE 6
Spontaneous mitotic recombination in excision-repair deficient rem1-containing strains

-		Relative recombination frequencies									
			Intragenic						Inter	genic	
Genotype	No. cultures <sup>a</sup>	LYS2	TYR1	HIS7	URA3	MET13	TRP5	LEU1	CANI	СҮН2	
++	19,23	1.0 (0.4)	1.0 (0.3)	1.0 (0.36)	1.0 (0.51)	1.0 (4.2)	1.0 (3.1)	1.0 (3.2)	1.0 (22)	1.0 (41)	
$\frac{rem1-2}{rem1-2}$	9,19	16	36	13	19	8.8	8.9	24	7.4	8.1	
$\frac{rad1-2}{rad1-2}$	3,9		1.7	1.1	0.9			1.8	5.2	3.2	
rad4 rad4	6,12	0.55	0.36	0.55	0.83	1.5	1.5	1.0	7.5	7.4	
$\frac{rem1}{rem1} \frac{rad1}{rad1}$	6,16		1.2	1.6	0.62	0.91			10	11	
$\frac{rem1}{rem1} \frac{rad4}{rad4}$	6,16	0.65	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.3	11	3.3	

Recombination levels are geometric mean frequencies normalized relative to wild-type levels. The wild-type recombination frequencies

TABLE 7

Chromosome loss in strains bearing rem1 or rad mutations

	Chromosome V				Chrome	Chromosome VII			
Diploid genotype	No. cultures	Total can1 <sup>R</sup> frequency (× 10 <sup>6</sup> )	Frequency due to loss <sup>a</sup> (× 10 <sup>6</sup> )	Percent loss <sup>b</sup>	Total cyh $2^R$ frequency $(\times 10^6)$	Frequency due to loss <sup>a</sup> (× 10 <sup>6</sup> )	Percent loss <sup>b</sup>		
+++	12	300	2.8	0.93	310	2.1	0.66		
$\frac{rad1-2}{rad1-2}$	6	1000	29	2.8	790	1.4	0.17		
rad4 rad4	8	1500	17	1.1	1200	18	1.5		
<u>rem1-2</u> <u>rem1-2</u>	8	2700	23	0.85	5400	29	0.55		
$\frac{rem1}{rem1} \frac{rad1}{rad1}$	8	1600	7	1.1	1200	6.5	0.54		
$\frac{rem1}{rem1} \frac{rad4}{rad4}$	8	2000	15	0.74	2200	4.7	0.21		

The level of chromosome loss contributing to the drug-resistant population was determined as described in the text.

ously measure crossing over and chromosome loss (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Table 7 gives the level of chromosome loss in wild-type, rem1, rad1-2, rad4 and double mutant strains. While chromosome loss relative to wild type is elevated approximately tenfold in all mutant strains, the rem1-2 rad1-2 and rem1-2 rad4 double mutants show no more chromosome loss than the single mutants. The level of chromosome

loss in wild-type strains is similar to values reported by others for chromosomes V and VII (Malone, Golin and Esposito 1980; Esposito  $et\,al$ . 1982; Hartwell  $et\,al$ . 1982). Therefore, the level of drugresistant colonies used to measure intergenic recombination in these strains is an accurate indicator of the level of crossing over. We conclude that mutations in excision-repair functions specifically reduce rem1-

<sup>(× 10&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>) are given in brackets below the first row.

"The first value indicates the number of cultures examined for intragenic recombination (gene conversion). The second number indicates the number of cultures examined for intergenic recombination (crossing over).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Frequency of chromosome loss resulting in drug resistance.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Relative amount of chromosome loss occurring in a drug-resistant population.

TABLE 8	
Excision-repair mutations rescue the inviability of rem1 rad50 and rem1 rad52 double mutan	ıts

				t genotype	enotype			
Diploid genotype	RADX <sup>a</sup> RADY <sup>b</sup> REM1	RADX RADY rem1						
$\frac{rem1}{+} \frac{rad1}{+} \frac{+}{rad52}$	24	31	26	22	0	30	26	26
$\frac{rem1}{+} \frac{rad1}{+} \frac{+}{rad50}$	31	36	24	18	0	32	35	29
$\frac{rem1}{+} \frac{rad4}{+} \frac{+}{rad52}$	57	6	40	4	0	10	50	45
$\frac{rem1}{+} \frac{rad4}{+} \frac{+}{rad50}$	47	6	38	8	0	8	40	41

The mutations used in this experiment were rem1-2, rad1-2, rad50-1, and rad52-1. Triply heterozygous diploids were constructed, sporulated, dissected, and viable spores tested for the presence of rem1 and/or rad mutations. The eight possible segregant genotypes are presented.

a "X" refers to the excision-repair mutation in the diploid.

b "Y" refers to the recombination-repair mutation in the diploid.

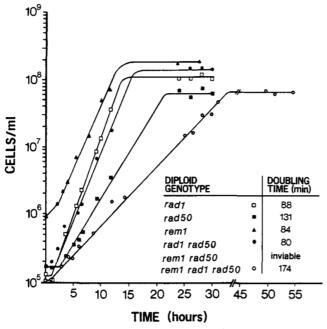


FIGURE 3.—Growth curves and doubling times in various rem1 and rad-containing strains. Cell counts were made from duplicate hemocytometer readings at various time points. Doubling times for related wild type strains (not shown) averaged 80 min.

elevated gene conversion but do not reduce *rem1*-elevated crossing over.

Excision-repair mutations prevent the lethality of rem1 rad50 and rem1 rad52: We have previously proposed that rem1 strains contain a recombinogenic lesion requiring dsb repair functions for resolution (MALONE and HOEKSTRA 1984). As described above, rem1 hyper-gene conversion requires excision-repair functions. We therefore asked whether these two sets of interactions were related. In other words, do RAD1 and RAD4 act on the initial rem1 lesion in a fashion

which both stimulates gene conversion and causes a requirement for recombination-repair? Triple mutants with rem1-2 in combination with rad1-2 (or rad4) and rad50-1 (or rad52-1) are indeed viable (Table 8). We conclude that mutations in at least two excision-repair genes prevent the occurrence of the lesion requiring the recombination-repair genes. Although viable, the triple mutants grow slowly (Figure 3). This suggests that the triple mutants have difficulty in "processing" the rem1 lesion. It is interesting that a defect in excision repair restores the growth rate of rad50 strains to that of wild type (Figure 3); this may indicate an interaction between the two pathways even in wild-type cells.

**Analysis of recombination in triple mutants:** The results described above indicate that RAD1 and RAD4 are necessary for the increased gene conversion, but not the high levels of crossing over, observed in rem1 strains. Mutations in rad1 or rad4 also obviate the need for recombination-repair. Taken together, these observations indicate that the elevated crossing over observed in rem1 strains might be independent of the recombination-repair pathway. To test this possibility, we examined mitotic recombination in the triple mutant rem1-2 rad1-2 rad52-1. As shown in Table 9, the triple mutants are reduced for gene conversion but not for the frequency of drug-resistant colonies. [A rem1-2 rad4 rad52-1 strain gave similar results (data not shown).] Because rad52-1 increases chromosome loss (Mortimer, Contopoulou and Schild 1981) we asked what effect it had in the rem1 rad1 background (Table 10). Although there is indeed a great deal of chromosome loss occurring in triple mutants, the residual drug-resistance frequency attributable to crossing over is approximately that of wild-type cells. Since no elevation of crossing over was seen, we conclude that recombination-repair (or at least

TA	BLE 9	
Spontaneous mitotic reco	mbination in a	triple mutant

Diploid genotype	No. – cultures	Relative recombination frequencies								
			Intergenic							
		URA3	HIS7	TYR1	LYS2	LEUI	TRP5	CANI	CYH2	
rad52 rad52	6ª	0.13	0.13	0.03	0.11	0.009	0.018	$0.45^{b}$	0.18	
rad1 rad52 rad1 rad52	6		0.25	0.14	0.40			68	9.8	
reml radl rad52 reml radl rad52	6	0.051	0.15	0.042	0.20	$0.034^c$	$0.044^c$	135	13	

The alleles used are rem1-2, rad1-2, and rad52-1. Values are normalized to the wild type values given in Table 6.

TABLE 10

Mitotic crossing over and chromosome loss frequencies in wild-type and rem1 rad1 rad52 triple mutant strains

		A. Proportion of chromosome loss	among individu	al drug-resistant papillae		
Genotype	No. can' t	ested No. his1 can'	% loss	No. cyh <sup>r</sup> tested	No. ade6 cyh' 7 109	% loss 4.9 53.4
Wild type	147	3	2.0	144		
Triple mutant	210	197	93.8	204		
		B. Mitotic crossover freque	ncy corrected for	chromosome loss		
Genotype	Marker	Observed frequency resistance	Proportion due to loss		Corrected exchange frequency	
Wild type	CAN1	$3.22 \times 10^{-4}$	$6.44 \times 10^{-5}$		$3.16 \times 10^{-4}$	
Triple mutant	CAN1	$1.10 \times 10^{-2}$	1.	$03 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.82 \times 10^{-4}$	
Wild type	CYH2	$4.51 \times 10^{-4}$	2.	$21 \times 10^{-5}$	$4.29 \times 10^{-4}$	
Triple mutant	CYH2 2.77 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>		1.	$48 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.29 \times 10^{-4}$	

Individual drug-resistant papillae from independent colonies were picked and tested for expression of recessive markers linked on the opposite side of the centromere as described in the text. The resulting percentages of drug resistance due to loss were used to adjust the drug-resistance frequencies [calculated as the geometric means of 9 (for wild type) or 10 (for triple mutant) individual liquid cultures] to obtain a corrected exchange frequency.

*RAD52*) is required for at least some *rem1* hypercrossing over. Since the cells are viable, we also conclude that this crossing over is unlikely to be stimulated by dsb's (see DISCUSSION).

Physical evidence for dsb's in rem1 cells: Several of the results above suggest that the lesions caused by rem1 can be converted to dsb's by the action of the excision-repair system. To test this hypothesis we examined rem1 DNA on neutral sucrose gradients. Consistent with the genetic evidence, the profile of rem1 DNA on neutral sucrose gradients is shifted to smaller sizes than DNA of an isogenic wild type (Figures 4 and 5). All experiments were done with rem1 and wild-type cells differentially labeled, mixed together, and then lysed and analyzed on the same gradients to avoid artifacts. The curve in Figure 4 is a representative neutral sucrose gradient of DNA prepared from strains which have had the label chased for a generation after an overnight pulse.

The number average molecular weight  $(M_n)$  for the furthest sedimenting chromosomal peak in rem1-2 is  $2.18 \times 10^8$  daltons while in the *REM1* diploid strain it is  $2.65 \times 10^8$  daltons (calculated from an average of three gradients). The calculated  $M_n$  for wild type is reasonably similar to the value of  $3.0 \pm 0.3 \times 10^8$ reported by RESNICK and MARTIN (1976). Since the strains used in the experiments shown in Figure 4 contained mitochondrial DNA, we could not examine the sizes of newly synthesized DNA in wild-type and rem1 strains. Therefore we isolated "petite" derivatives by growth in the presence of ethidium bromide (SLONIMSKI, PERRODIN and CROFT 1968). Newly replicated DNA from these strains was examined by growing overnight in the presence of label with no chase followed by sedimentation on neutral sucrose gradients. Figure 5 demonstrates a normalized plot for eight gradient runs. To generate this figure we have taken the ratio of REM1:rem1 per gradient

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Data from Malone and Esposito (1980).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Data from MALONE and Esposito (1981).

Data from 10 cultures of a different triple mutant strain (the strain used in the chromosome loss experiment in Table 10).

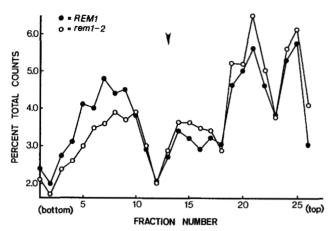


FIGURE 4.—Sucrose gradient analysis of rem1 cells. REM1 and rem1-2 cells were grown overnight in synthetic medium containing [ $^3$ H]- or [ $^{14}$ C]adenine as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Sucrose gradients (5–20%) were formed and run as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Phage T4 DNA was used as a size standard and its sedimentation position is indicated (arrowhead). Calculated number average  $M_n$  were  $2.65 \times 10^8$  daltons for REM1 and  $2.18 \times 10^8$  daltons for rem1.

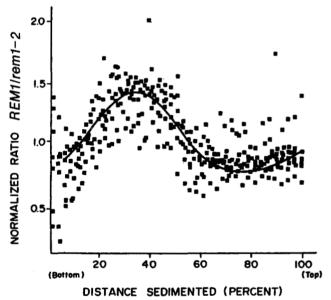


FIGURE 5.—Neutral sucrose gradient analysis of rem1. Petite REM1 and rem1-2 cells lacking mitochondria were labeled and run on 5–20% neutral sucrose gradients as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. The normalized ratio of REM1/rem1-2 for eight separate gradients is plotted as a function of sedimentation. To generate this figure we have taken the ratio of REM1:rem1 per gradient fraction and normalized to the ratio of total counts per gradient. This sets a normalized value of unity if the relative amount of DNA at a point in the gradient is equal in both strains. Regions of the curve greater than 1.0 indicate more REM1 DNA is present compared to rem1. Values less than 1.0 indicate the amount of DNA from rem1 is greater than REM1. In these experiments the rem1 cells were labeled with <sup>14</sup>C and the wild-type cells with <sup>3</sup>H. Experiments with the labels reversed gave similar results.

fraction and normalized to the ratio for the total counts per gradient. Therefore, values greater than 1.0 indicate more *REM1* DNA is present than *rem1*. Values less than 1.0 indicate the amount of DNA

from rem1 at that point is greater than wild type. Interpolating our values for rem1-2 and REM1 with published dose curves (Resnick and Martin 1976), it appears as if the change in  $M_n$  is similar to an X-ray dose of approximately 5 krad. In a wild-type cell, a dose of 5 krad reduces viability a few percent at most, while in rad52 cells, viability is reduced by two to three orders of magnitude (Game and Mortimer 1974; Resnick and Martin 1976). This is consistent with the genetic observation of double mutant inviability. This dose also corresponds to approximately one to two strand breaks/cell (Resnick and Martin 1976).

### DISCUSSION

In this report we have demonstrated that the hyper-recombination and hyper-mutation causing mutations rem1-1 and rem1-2 are alleles of the essential gene RAD3. Both genetic mapping and complementation with cloned genes indicate that the rem1 mutations are alleles of RAD3, and we therefore propose that rem1-1 be known as rad3-101 and rem1-2 as rad3-102.

Why was the identity of the rem1 mutations not discovered earlier? Because the rem1 phenotypes are very different from those of the UV-sensitive RAD3 mutations, there was no reason to suppose that rem1 might be an allele of a UV repair gene. The RAD3 gene is an essential mitotic function (HIGGINS et al. 1983; NAUMOVSKI and FRIEDBERG 1983) involved in the incision step of excision-repair (REYNOLDS and FRIEDBERG 1981; WILCOX and PRAKASH 1981). These two groups originally cloned and sequenced RAD3 (NAUMOVSKI and FRIEDBERG 1982, 1983; HIGGINS et al. 1983; Naumovski et al. 1985; Reynolds et al. 1985). Recent data indicate that at least one function of the Rad3 protein is a DNA-dependent ATPase (Sung et al. 1987). The many phenotypes exhibited by mutant alleles of RAD3 also suggest that it may encode a multifunctional protein; however, to date, no one region has been absolutely defined mutationally as being responsible for the UV repair or essential functions (Naumovski and Friedberg 1986, 1987). Localizing the rem1 alleles, which differ phenotypically from other rad3 mutant alleles, should help to elucidate the structure-function relationships of this important protein. The rescue experiments suggest that at least rem1-2 is located in or near the ClaI fragment; this region is of particular interest because it contains the portion of sequence identified as resembling sequences encoding DNA-binding domains of other proteins (NAUMOVSKI et al. 1985; REY-NOLDS et al. 1985; NAUMOVSKI and FRIEDBERG 1986).

There are several precedents for "DNA repair genes" coding for products involved in various aspects of DNA metabolism. One example is that of the excision repair gene *uvrD* of *E. coli* (CARON,

Kushner and Grossman 1985; Husain et al. 1985) which is now known to encode the ATP-dependent DNA helicase II (Kumura and Sekiguchi 1984). Mutations in uvrD have been variously isolated as UV-sensitive, as spontaneous mutators, or as hyperor hypo-rec mutants (Ogawa, Shimada and Tomizawa 1968; Smirnov and Skavronskaya 1971; Siegel 1973; Horii and Clark 1973; Konrad 1977). This array of phenotypes is reminiscent of those associated with the various rad3 alleles, and suggests one possible function for the wild-type RAD3 gene product, particularly in light of the discovery of its ATPase activity (Sung et al. 1987).

Since rem1 rad52 and rem1 rad50 double mutants are inviable (MALONE and HOEKSTRA 1984), we proposed that recombinogenic lesions occur in rem1 strains that require resolution by the recombinationrepair epistasis group. The simplest explanation for the lesion would be a dsb. However, since the recombination-repair system does not appear to create mutations while repairing dsb's (HAYNES and KUNZ 1981), this hypothesis did not easily explain the increased mutation frequency of rem1 strains. We then proposed that the lesions require processing to form dsb's. We found that triple mutants with blocks in excision- and strand-break-repair (e.g., rem1 rad1 rad52) are alive. This suggests that the excision-repair functions act on the initial lesion to ultimately produce dsb's in rem1 strains.

The viability of triple mutants has allowed us to examine the levels of recombination in these strains. The rad52-1 mutation confers a mitotic Rec phenotype for both gene conversion and, to a lesser extent, crossing over between homologous chromosomes (MALONE and Esposito 1980; Prakash et al. 1980; HOEKSTRA, NAUGHTON and MALONE 1986). Thus, triple mutants such as rem1 rad1 rad52 should demonstrate rad52 levels of conversion and crossing over if rem1 hyper-recombination were entirely dependent on RAD52. As shown in Table 10, triple mutants demonstrate greatly reduced levels of gene conversion, but wild type levels of crossing over, intermediate between rem1 and rad52-1 levels. These crossovers must by definition be occurring by some pathway other than the RAD52 recombination-repair mode. Observations by several laboratories suggest the existence of such a pathway for recombination between sister chromatids in the ribosomal DNA, for intrachromosomal events between duplicated genes, and for integration of a circular plasmid into its homologous chromosomal site (JACKSON and FINK 1981; ORR-WEAVER, SZOSTAK and ROTHSTEIN 1981; PRAKASH and TAILLON-MILLER 1981; ZAMB and PETES 1981). Consistent with these results, HABER and HEARN (1985) proposed that in rad52-1 strains gene conversion associated with crossing over occurs by a pathway distinct from that responsible for conversion alone.

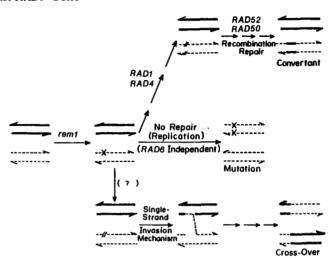


FIGURE 6.—Model for interactions between *rem1* and various repair mutations leading to the production of gene conversions, crossovers, and mutations.

Figure 6 is an interpretation of the interactions described in this report. We propose that rem1 strains contain DNA lesions, indicated as "X," that can stimulate mutation, and if acted upon by excisionrepair, recombination. We propose three alternative fates for the lesion in Figure 6: (1) The lesion is recognized and acted upon by functions including RAD1 and RAD4. (The actual number and nature of the steps are not known and have been designated by three arrows.) During this process, a dsb may form that requires RAD50 and RAD52 for resolution, generating "rem1 hyper-recombination." In the absence of RAD1 or RAD4, recombinogenic dsb's are not formed and the recombination-repair system is not needed for survival. (2) An alternative fate of "X" is to become fixed as a mutation, presumably by DNA replication. [Neither the excision-repair functions nor RAD6 function is necessary for "rem1-hypermutation" (HOEKSTRA and MALONE 1987).] (3) Finally, "X" may initiate a recombinational process generating the crossovers seen in rem1-excision-defective double mutants and in the triple mutants containing rad52-1. Although the RAD52 gene is clearly not required for this recombination, when it is present, it may contribute to recombinants formed in this way. We argue that this crossing over cannot involve a dsb because it occurs in the absence of RAD52; the third pathway shown in Figure 6 suggests that it might involve a single strand exchange mechanism (e.g., Meselson and Radding 1975).

What is the identity of the rem1 DNA lesion? Given the allelism of rem1 with RAD3, the fact that RAD3 is essential, and the behavior of the multiple mutants, it is reasonable to suppose that it is an aberrant product of DNA replication, perhaps a base mismatch. [Mismatch repair has recently been shown to occur in mitosis in wild-type yeast (BISHOP and KOLODNER 1986; BISHOP et al. 1987).] The hyper-mutational phenotype of rem1 mutants would be easily

explained by such a hypothesis. To account for the hyper-recombinational phenotype of rem1 and the multiple mutant results, the model in Figure 6 needs only the assumption that excision repair functions in yeast can recognize some subset of DNA replication errors. Since they can recognize adenine methylation (HOEKSTRA and MALONE 1986), a relatively subtle change, it is perhaps not an unreasonable assumption. DiCaprio and Hastings (1976) reported that rad1 and rad4 did not affect the frequency of postmeiotic segregation. However, it is not clear that mismatches created during meiotic recombination and mismatches created during mitotic DNA replication would be repaired by the same systems. It has not been reported whether RAD1 and RAD4 are even expressed in meiotic cells.

The model predicts that the *rem1* lesion is a DNA replication error, suggesting that the role of the wild-type *RAD3* gene product may be in maintenance of the fidelity of DNA replication. The properties of the *rem1* alleles may provide us with a unique opportunity to study the role of Rad3 protein *in vivo* and *in vitro*.

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